



## Nitrification in a zeoponic substrate

R.L. McGilloway<sup>1</sup>, R.W. Weaver<sup>1,3</sup>, D.W. Ming<sup>2</sup> & J.E. Gruener<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Soil and Crop Sciences Department, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, 77843-2474, USA. <sup>2</sup>National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Lyndon B. Johnson Space Center, 2101 NASA Road 1, Houston, TX, 77058, USA. <sup>3</sup>Corresponding author\*

Received 6 August 2002. Accepted in revised form 26 May 2003

**Key words:** nitrification, nitrifying bacteria, radish, zeoponics

### Abstract

Clinoptilolite is a zeolite mineral with high cation exchange capacity used in zeoponic substrates that have been proposed as a solid medium for growing plants or as a fertilizer material. The kinetics of nitrification has not been measured for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  saturated zeoponic substrate. Experiments were conducted to evaluate the production of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and nitrifier populations in zeoponic substrates. Small columns were filled with zeoponic substrate inoculated with a commercial inoculum or soil enrichment culture of nitrifying bacteria. In addition to column studies, a growth chamber study was conducted to evaluate the kinetics of nitrification in zeoponic substrates used to grow radishes (*Raphanus sativus* L.). The zeoponic substrate provided a readily available source of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and nitrifying bacteria were active in the substrate. Ammonium oxidation rates in column studies ranged from 5 to  $10 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$  substrate  $\text{h}^{-1}$ , and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation rates were 2 to  $9.5 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$  substrate  $\text{h}^{-1}$ . Rates determined from the growth chamber study were approximately  $1.2 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$  substrate  $\text{h}^{-1}$ . Quantities of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidized to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in inoculated zeoponic substrate were in excess of plant up-take. Acidification as a result of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation resulted in a pH decline, and the zeoponic substrate showed limited buffering capacity.

### Introduction

Zeoponic plant growth substrates have been developed to grow plants during long-term space missions (Ming, 1989). Zeolites are hydrated aluminosilicates with extra framework alkali and alkaline earth cations that have the capability to exchange some of their constituent cations without change of structure (Ming and Mumpton, 1989). A primary benefit of using a zeoponic substrate is that sufficient nitrogen in the form of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  may be available on cation exchange sites for multiple croppings.

Some evidence suggests that a balance between  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is desirable in promoting plant growth and seed development. Plants may utilize  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ions effectively as a source of nitrogen (Maynard and Barker, 1969). However, species differ in their ability to absorb or assimilate different nitro-

gen sources (McKee, 1962). Ammonium, as a sole source of nitrogen, was deleterious to the growth of radish plants (Goyal et al., 1982; Weir et al., 1972), and many other higher plants (Findenegg, 1987; Hoff et al., 1974).

Understanding the nitrogen dynamics in zeoponic systems is critical to ensure efficacy of this substrate as a plant growth medium. In previous research, nitrifying bacteria have been added to zeoponic substrates so that some  $\text{NO}_3^-$  may be formed to provide balanced nitrogen nutrition; however, the kinetics of nitrification were not measured (Steinberg et al., 2000).

Nitrate can be provided to a plant growth system via nitrification, which involves the oxidation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and then to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . It is carried out exclusively by microbiological agents (Bohloul et al., 1977). Different microbial populations carry out  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation. In soil systems, these successive steps are chiefly carried out advanced life support systems during long-term space

\* FAX No.: +1-979-845-5695. E-mail: rw-weaver@tamu.edu

missions. Knowledge of nitrification activities is essential to maintaining the proper balance of inorganic nitrogen forms. Too much nitrification may result in toxicity to plants or humans consuming plants.

## Materials and methods

Three experiments were conducted. Experiment I utilized a zeoponic mixture in small plastic columns to determine kinetics of nitrification using a commercially available inoculum. Experiment II was conducted in the same fashion but soil was used as the inoculum. Experiment III was conducted at Johnson Space Center, Houston, Texas under conditions used to grow plants in zeaponics.

### *Experiment I*

#### *Zeoponic mixture*

The zeoponic substrate was similar to that described by Steinberg et al. (2000), and was basically composed of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ - and  $\text{K}^+$ -saturated clinoptilolitic tuff, dolomite, and synthetic nutrient-substituted hydroxyapatite. The substrate was washed thoroughly with distilled water to remove  $\text{NO}_3^-$  present from processes used in development of the zeoponic substrate.

#### *Inoculum*

A commercial inoculum of nitrifying bacteria (Turbo Start 700, Fritz-Zyme, Mesquite, Texas) included both  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria. The commercial inoculum of nitrifying bacteria contained a concentration of  $1 \times 10^7$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$   $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria and  $1 \times 10^8$  cells  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria based on most probable number (MPN) enumerations by the method of Schmidt and Belser (1994). The MPN method may result in low estimates of nitrifier populations (Schmidt and Belser, 1994).

#### *Treatments*

Small columns, 10 cm in length and 1.5 cm in diameter, were filled with 10 g of zeoponic substrate and inoculated with 5-mL of diluted commercial inoculum. The treatments were set-up in triplicate and were as follows: no inoculum, an inoculum containing  $1.0 \times 10^2$   $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  substrate and  $3.1 \times 10^3$   $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  substrate denoted as low inoculum, and an inoculum containing  $1.0 \times 10^4$   $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  substrate

and  $3.1 \times 10^5$   $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  substrate denoted as high inoculum. Numbers of nitrifying bacteria were determined by the MPN method on zeoponic medium within an hour of inoculation and due to limitations of the MPN method the numbers may have been underestimated (Schmidt and Belser, 1994).

#### *Measurements*

Columns were leached daily with 10 mL distilled water for 1 month and the leachate collected. The leachate was analyzed for  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N using the copper-cadmium reduction method described by Bundy and Meisinger (1994). The pH of leachate was determined with a pH electrode and digital ionalyzer. Data are presented as cumulative  $\mu\text{g N}$ , either  $\text{NO}_2^-$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{g}^{-1}$  zeoponic substrate and was the product of 10 mL leachate and concentration of nitrogen form divided by 10 g zeoponic substrate.

### *Experiment II*

#### *Inoculum*

Ships clayey soil (very fine, mixed, thermic Chromic Udic Haplusterts), was collected from the surface horizon (0–15 cm) of a field near College Station, Texas. It was air dried at room temperature and ground to pass a 2-mm sieve. To stimulate the growth of nitrifying bacteria the soil was re-wetted to field capacity, 100  $\mu\text{g NH}_4^+$ -N  $\text{g}^{-1}$  soil was added and the sample was incubation for 1 month at room temperature. At the end of incubation, an active population of nitrifying bacteria was confirmed using the short-term nitrification rate assay (Schmidt and Belser, 1994).

#### *Treatments*

Before inoculation and putting substrate into the columns, 100 g of substrate was shaken by hand with 200-mL distilled water to remove background  $\text{NO}_3^-$  that was present. The liquid fraction was decanted and wash was repeated with another 200 mL distilled water to remove residual  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . The washed zeoponic substrate was air-dried overnight. The treatments were set-up in triplicate. One treatment was 0.1 g of soil enriched for nitrifying bacteria mixed with 10 g of zeoponic substrate. This provided  $1.1 \times 10^4$   $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  zeoponic substrate and  $4.9 \times 10^3$   $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  zeoponic substrate. The second treatment was 0.1 g sterile soil mixed with 10 g of zeoponic substrate. The soil that had been enriched for nitrifying bacteria was subjected to auto-

claving (121 °C at 0.10 MPa for 15 min) for a source of sterilized soil.

#### *Measurements*

Columns were leached daily with 10 mL of distilled water, for a 1-month period, and the leachate was analyzed for  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N, and pH. Data are presented as for Experiment I.

#### *Experiment III*

##### *Inoculum*

A commercial inoculum of nitrifying bacteria (Nitro-treat, Enviroflow, Inc., Manassas, VA) included both  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria.

##### *Treatments*

A pot experiment with Cherry Belle radishes was conducted in a plant growth chamber at NASA Johnson Space Center. Each pot was filled with 450 g of the zeoponic mixture, described for Experiment I. Treatments included pots with commercial inoculum and no plants, and pots with commercial inoculum and plants. The number of nitrifiers in the inoculum was not determined. There was also a control treatment that received no inoculum, and no plants. Pots were arranged in a completely randomized design with three replicates per treatment, and two replicates for controls.

##### *Plant Growth*

Seven radish seeds were sown in each pot, and 1 week after emergence thinned to three seedlings. The environment was maintained at 23 °C and 75% relative humidity under a 16-hr photoperiod with a light intensity of  $300 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Throughout the growth period, the soil moisture content was kept at field capacity via an irrigation system and there was minimal leaching, but all leachate was collected.

At the beginning and at weekly intervals, the pots were leached with three batches of 400 mL distilled water. Leachates were collected and analyzed for  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  using the copper-cadmium reduction method (Bundy and Meisinger, 1994), and pH was measured. The pH of the leachate was determined with a pH electrode and pH was measured with a digital ionalyzer.

#### *Short-term nitrification assay*

Plugs of the zeoponic substrate, approximately 10 g, were removed weekly from the pots to determine activity of nitrifying bacteria using the short-term nitrification assay (Schmidt and Belser, 1994). One gram of the sample was used in the assays. To remove  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the sample, it was washed by vortexing with 10 mL of distilled water in a test tube. The liquid fraction was decanted and passed through a  $0.45\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  filter on a vacuum filtration apparatus. The process was repeated, and then 20 mL of distilled water were used to wash the substrate from the test tube into the filtration apparatus. The filter and residue on the filter were then placed into a 150 mL Erlenmeyer flask with 10 mL of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -oxidizer media for the short-term nitrification assay as described by Schmidt and Belser (1994). At time zero, samples were analyzed for  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Bundy and Meisinger, 1994). Incubations were for 2-h at 20 °C on a rotary incubator shaker. Following the 2-h incubation, solution was removed from the flask, and analyzed for  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ .

##### *Radish harvest*

Twenty-one days after planting, radishes were harvested. Shoots and roots were removed from the pot by carefully washing substrate away from the plant material with a gentle stream of water. The plant material was oven dried at 65 °C for 24 h before determining the dry weight. The material was then ground to pass through a 30 mesh screen. The ground material was analyzed for total nitrogen (Sheldrick, 1986), and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Keeney and Nelson, 1982).

Uninoculated columns maintained a pH above 7.4 (Figure 4). The pH for treatments inoculated with the high inoculum declined to 5.8 and the pH of the low inoculum treatment declined to 6.2 during the study (Figure 4).

Leachate from zeoponic substrate amended with sterilized soil was approximately pH 8 over the course of the study (Figure 8). Leachate from treatments amended with soil enriched with nitrifying bacteria declined to pH 6.6 by the end of the study (Figure 8).

#### *Experiment III*

There were no statistically significant differences for short term nitrification rates between treatments having radish plants and those not having radish plants 1, 2, and 3 weeks after planting (Table 1). Ammonium

Table 1. Nitrification activity of zeoponic substrate collected as core samples at 1, 2, and 3 weeks from pots growing plants and from pots not growing plants\*

Treatment	Parameter	$\mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ zeoponic substrate $\text{h}^{-1}$		
		Week 1	Week 2	Week 3
No plant	$\text{NH}_4^+$ Oxidation	$1.10 \pm 0.19$	$1.78 \pm 0.15$	$1.73 \pm 0.37$
Plant	$\text{NH}_4^+$ Oxidation	$1.21 \pm 0.14$	$1.49 \pm 0.30$	$1.78 \pm 0.20$
No plant	$\text{NO}_2^-$ Oxidation	$0.40 \pm 0.15$	$0.61 \pm 0.23$	$0.75 \pm 0.20$
Plant	$\text{NO}_2^-$ Oxidation	$0.38 \pm 0.04$	$0.70 \pm 0.18$	$0.74 \pm 0.13$

\*No statistically significant differences between having or not having plants present.

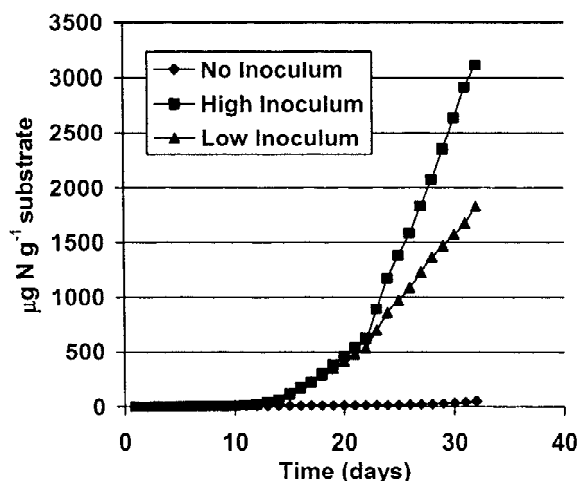


Figure 1. Gross  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation based on cumulative  $\text{NO}_2^-$  -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  -N leached from columns containing zeoponic substrate receiving two rates of inoculation, and an uninoculated control.

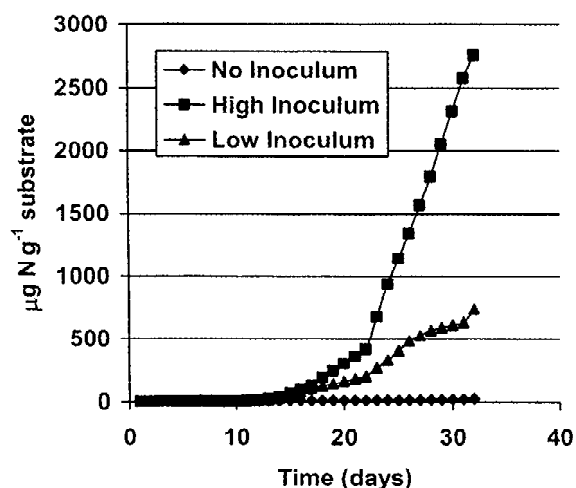


Figure 2. Nitrite-oxidation based on cumulative  $\text{NO}_3^-$  -N leached from columns containing zeoponic substrate receiving two rates of inoculation, and an uninoculated control.

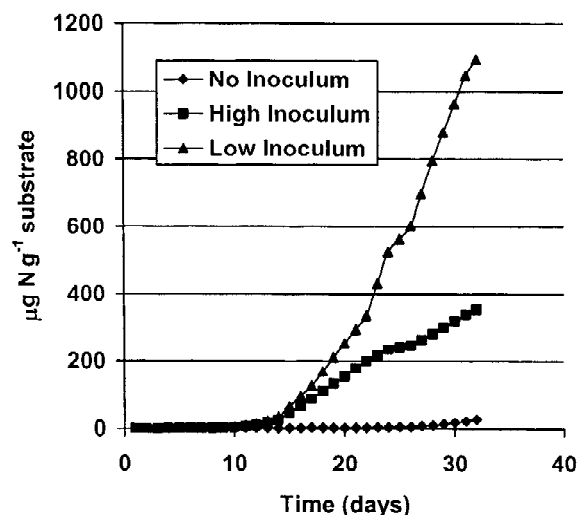


Figure 3. Cumulative  $\text{N}_2^-$  -N leached from columns containing zeoponic substrates receiving two rates of inoculation, and an uninoculated control.

oxidation increased from the first week of study to the second week. Nitrite oxidation over the course of the study showed lower rates of activity when compared to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation (Table 1). Rates of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation increased from week 1 to weeks 2 and 3.

Considerable amounts of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were leached from pots in the growth chamber study. The  $\text{NO}_3^-$  collected in the leachate over the 3-week growth period was approximately  $72.7 \pm 12.7$  mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$  -N in the treatments with no plants and  $117 \pm 9.13$  mg  $\text{NO}_3^-$  -N in treatments with plants. The  $\text{NO}_2^-$  collected in the leachate was  $316 \pm 37.0$  mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$  -N in treatments with no plants and  $288 \pm 29.3$  mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$  -N in treatments with plants.

The shoot portion of the radish plant contained the highest concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  on a dry weight basis (Table 2). The radish (edible portion of plant) con-

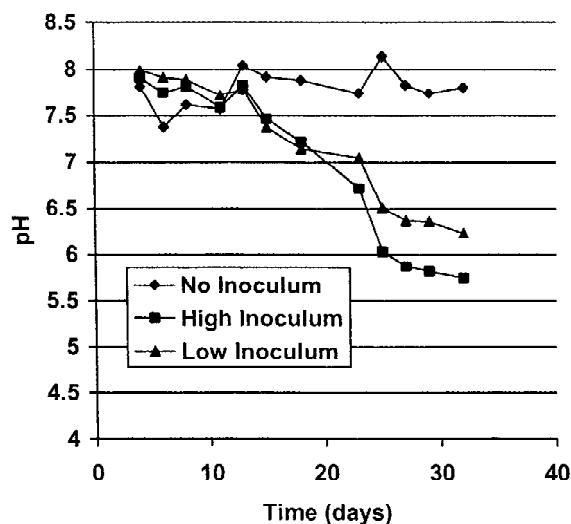


Figure 4. pH values of the leachate collected from columns containing zeoponic substrate over the one-month incubation period.

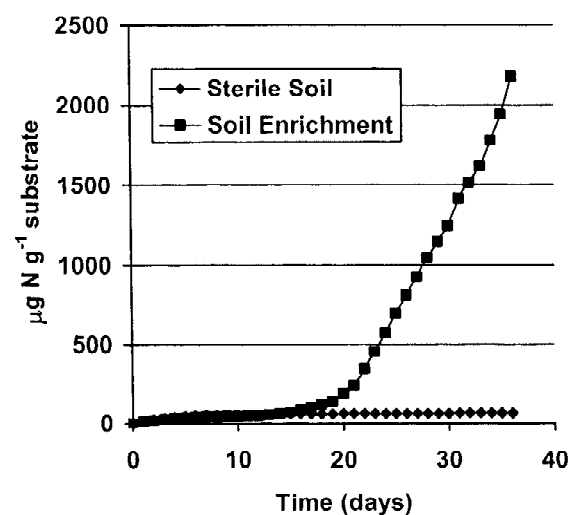


Figure 5. Gross  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation based on cumulative  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N leached from columns containing zeoponic substrate inoculated with soil enriched for nitrifying bacteria, and an uninoculated control.

tained a lower concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , but the highest concentration of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . The concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the plant material was much higher than the concentration of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . The percentage of total N present as  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was less than 20% and was less than 0.06% for  $\text{NO}_2^-$ .

Leachate from pots receiving no commercial inoculum of nitrifying bacteria maintained an alkaline pH for 3 weeks (Table 3). The pH in leachate from pots

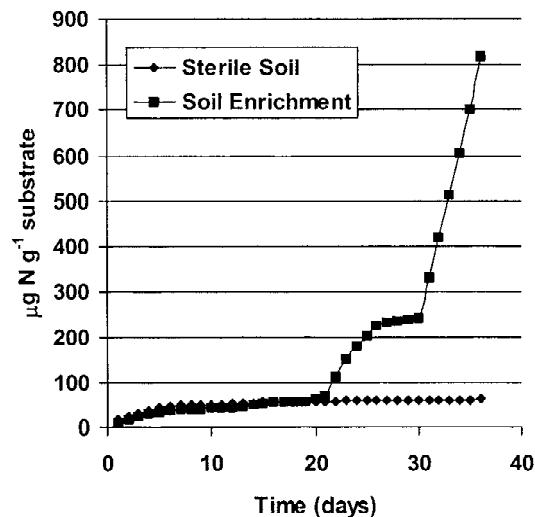


Figure 6. Nitrite-oxidation based on cumulative  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N leached from columns containing zeoponic substrate inoculated with soil enriched for nitrifying bacteria, and an uninoculated control.

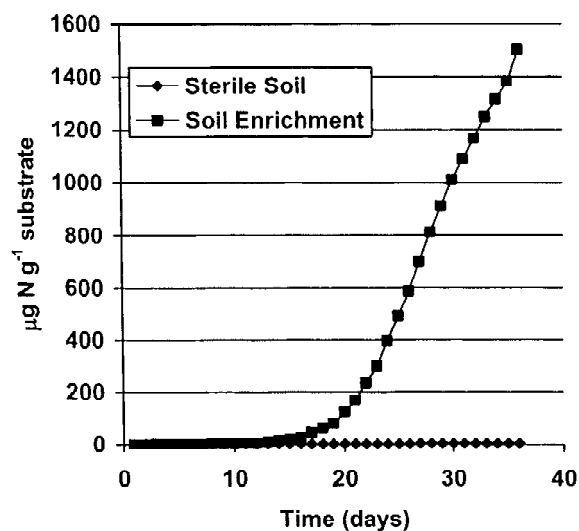


Figure 7. Cumulative  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N leached from columns containing zeoponic substrate inoculated with soil enriched for nitrifying bacteria, and an uninoculated control.

inoculated with nitrifying bacteria declined to 6.95 at 3 weeks of incubation (Table 3).

## Discussion

Nitrification was very active in the zeoponic substrate for both commercial inoculum sources (Figures 1 and 2, Table 1) and the soil enrichment inoculum (Figures 5 and 6). The results indicated three areas of

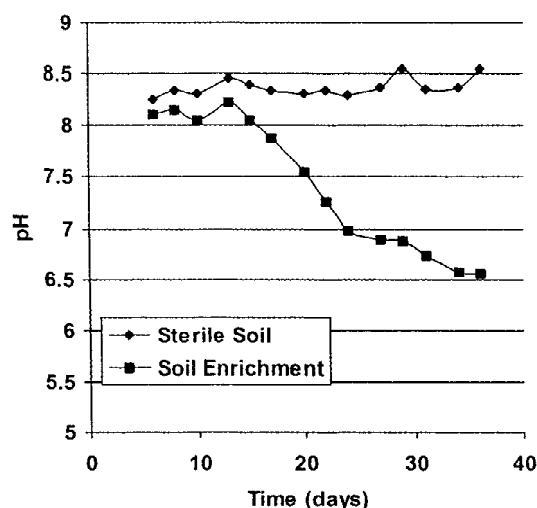


Figure 8. pH values of the leachate collected from columns containing zeoponic substrate over the one-month incubation period.

Table 2. Dry matter yield and nitrogen composition of radish plants grown in zeoponic substrate inoculated with nitrifying bacteria

	Dry weight (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )	Total N (g N kg <sup>-1</sup> )	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> (mg N kg <sup>-1</sup> )	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> (g N kg <sup>-1</sup> )
Shoot	0.39	73 ± 17 a*	0.33 ± 0.25 a	13 ± 8.6 a
Radish	0.19	36 ± 5.8 b	22.5 ± 14.5 b	4.2 ± 2.0 b
Root	0.05	43 ± 5.6 b	6.5 ± 10.4 ab	3.4 ± 0.7 b

\*Means followed by the same lower case letter in a column are not significantly different (LSD,  $P = 0.05$ ;  $n = 3$ ).

Table 3. pH values of leachates during the 3-week period of radish growth

Treatment	Initial	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3
No Plant	7.63	6.86	7.29	6.96
Plant	7.69	7.13	7.27	6.95
Uninoculated	7.50	8.15	8.05	7.84

concern with using nitrification to provide a balance of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  for plant growth in  $\text{NH}_4^+$  saturated zeoponic substrate. The rate of nitrification was so rapid that excessive amounts of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidized,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  accumulated, and the pH of the leachates were considerably reduced.

The rate of nitrification was high in column experiments and exceeded the rates for soils amended with  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . The rates of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation were

approximately  $10 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  for the higher rate commercial inoculum (Figures 1 and 2). Initially, the number of cells used were in the low range for soils but during the incubation numbers increased to  $5 \times 10^7 \text{ NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  and  $8 \times 10^7 \text{ NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  which would be considered high for soils (Schmidt, 1982). The population of nitrifying bacteria has been suggested as an important factor affecting the amount of nitrification occurring in soils (Frederick, 1957; Sabey et al., 1959). Belser and Mays (1982) reported  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation rates of approximately  $1.3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{soil h}^{-1}$  in New Zealand soils, which contained  $1 \times 10^4 \text{ NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$ . Sarathachandra (1978) measured rates as high as  $3.3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  in soils with  $3.6 \times 10^5 \text{ NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  and  $7.7 \times 10^6 \text{ NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$ .

Nitrification rates necessary to produce the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in leachate collected over the plant growth period were approximately  $1.7 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1} \text{substrate h}^{-1}$ . Rates determined by the short-term assay were comparable, approximately  $1.2 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1} \text{substrate h}^{-1}$  (Table 1). In addition, short-term nitrification rates in the growth chamber study were considerably lower than nitrification rates for the column studies. Differences in these rates may be related to the length of the studies. The growth chamber study was conducted for only 21 days and most rapid rates of nitrification in column studies occurred after 20 days (Figures 1, 2, 5 and 6).

Inoculating with nitrifying bacteria into zeoponic substrates resulted in  $\text{NO}_2^-$  accumulation regardless of the inoculum source. Nitrite can be toxic to seed germination and plant growth (Samater et al., 1998). The soil  $\text{NO}_2^-$  level responsible for toxicity to plants ranges from as little as 2 to 100 mg  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N kg soil}^{-1}$  (Olson and Kurtz, 1982). Nitrite becomes more toxic as the pH of the nutrient media decreases, and if  $\text{NH}_4^+$  rather than  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is the primary source of available nitrogen (Phipps and Cornforth, 1970). Bancroft et al. (1979) reported that at pH 7 plants can tolerate up to 200 mg  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N kg}^{-1}$  but at pH 4 the tolerance limit is 2 mg  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N kg}^{-1}$ . The  $\text{NO}_2^-$  from the leachate collected during the 3 weeks of our radish experiment resulted in approximately 700 mg  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N kg}^{-1}$  zeoponic substrate being collected over the 3-week study. The weekly leachings may have prevented toxic concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  from building up and affecting plant growth.

Differences in rates of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation, and perhaps population sizes of nitrifying bacteria

may explain the observed accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . The low inoculum treatment exhibited greater accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  when compared to the high inoculum treatment (Figure 3). Apparently, the toxicity of high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content was relatively more detrimental to reduced numbers of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria. This is evident from MPN counts of nitrifying bacteria. In the low inoculum treatment, there were initially  $4.5 \times 10^3$   $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$  and at the end of the study population size was approximately  $7.8 \times 10^3$ . When compared to the high inoculum treatment, populations increased from  $3.1 \times 10^5$  to  $7.8 \times 10^7$   $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$ .

Variations in populations of nitrifying bacteria also resulted in  $\text{NO}_2^-$  accumulation in zeoponic substrate inoculated with a soil inoculum. Initially,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria were 10-fold higher than  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria. At the conclusion of the study, there were  $2.9 \times 10^7$   $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria and  $7.5 \times 10^5$   $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria  $\text{g}^{-1}$ . The higher initial population size of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria along with their lack of sensitivity to high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations and high pH promoted  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation compared to activity of the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria, which had lower populations, and more sensitivity to high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  at alkaline pH.

The zeoponic substrate consisted of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  saturated clinoptilolite with an exchange capacity of  $210 \text{ cmol kg}^{-1}$  and a pH of 7.8. Stojanovic and Alexander (1958) reported that  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N in high concentrations caused the accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in soils due to effects of  $\text{NH}_3$  on  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation. Morrill and Dawson (1967) concluded that an inhibitory effect of  $\text{NH}_3$  on  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria gave rise to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  accumulation in soils and was evident primarily during the first few days.

Nitrification results in acidification of the growth environment (Darusman et al., 1991). The leachate from the zeoponic substrate, which contained dolomite to act as a pH buffer, became acidic (Figure 4). Inability of the zeoponic substrate to buffer pH during nitrification may become problematic for plant growth if the same substrate is used repeatedly and the pH of the substrate begins to match that of the leachate.

The nitrogen composition of the radish plant tissue contained a considerable amount of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  but not much  $\text{NO}_2^-$  (Table 2). According to Cantliffe and Phatak (1974), radish plants are known to accumulate  $\text{NO}_3^-$  when grown with elevated concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the soil. The quantities accumulated would not likely be detrimental to plant growth based on

findings of Samater et al. (1998). Some research suggests that ingested  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NO}_2^-$  may be detrimental to human health (Comly, 1945; Correa et al., 1990; Oshima et al., 1981; Rademacher et al., 1992). Concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in plant tissue were not high enough to be of large concern since radish consumption would be limited and toxicity is not high (Corre and Breimer, 1979). However,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in the plant might have been higher without weekly leachings of substrate, which removed excess  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ .

Based on the dry matter yield and nitrogen composition of radish plants, approximately 37 mg total N was taken up by the plant (Table 2). Since much larger amounts of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  were collected in the leachate, nitrification exceeded radish plant needs. The significance of so much  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  leached relative to total plant up-take indicates a need for nitrogen nutrient management. Perhaps if a higher nitrogen demand crop, like wheat, were grown there would not have been excess  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . According to Allen and Ming (1995), the plant nitrogen content in winter wheat grown in zeoponic substrates was approximately 4.6% on a dry weight basis. Based on a dry weight of  $17 \text{ g pot}^{-1}$  and a 90-day growth cycle, approximately  $0.09 \text{ mg N g}^{-1} \text{ substrate day}^{-1}$  was taken up by the plant. The combined  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  collected in the leachate over a 3-week growth period was approximately 405 mg  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , thus nitrogen available for daily plant up-take was approximately  $0.04 \text{ mg N g}^{-1} \text{ substrate day}^{-1}$ .

Based on the exchange capacity of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  from zeoponic substrates ( $210 \text{ cmol kg}^{-1}$ ) and the amount of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  collected from the column leachings, approximately 1–2% of the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  available on clinoptilolite exchange sites was utilized. In the growth chamber study, nitrogen lost via leaching and plant uptake ( $450 \text{ mg N pot}^{-1}$ ) accounted for approximately 3% of the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  available on cation exchange sites.

## Conclusions

Nitrifying bacteria were active in the zeoponic substrate. Nitrification rates exceeded those reported in soil systems, and provided excessive amounts of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  for plant uptake. Nitrite accumulation may have been due to elevated  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in zeoponic substrates and to higher populations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidizing bacteria than  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizing bacteria. Acidi-

fication as a result of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  oxidation resulted in a pH decline, and the zeoponic substrate showed limited buffering capacity. Based on these findings, it may be advisable to limit the use of nitrifying bacteria or inhibit nitrification in zeoponic substrates used in advanced life-support systems.

## Acknowledgements

This research was made possible by a NASA Graduate Student Researchers Program Fellowship NGT 9-34. In addition, we thank Ms. Heidi Mjelde for her technical assistance with this project.

## References

- Allen E R and Ming D W 1995 Recent progress in the use of natural zeolites in agronomy and horticulture. *In* Natural Zeolites' 93. Ed. D W Ming and F A Mumpton. pp. 477–490. Int. Comm. Natural Zeolites, Brockport, NY, USA.
- Bancroft K, Grant I F and Alexander M 1979 Toxicity of nitrite: effect of nitrite on microbial activity in an acid soil. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 38, 940–944.
- Belser L W and Mays E L 1982 Use of nitrifier activity measurements to estimate the efficiency of viable nitrifier counts in soils and sediments. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 43, 945–948.
- Bohloul B B, Schmidt E L and Beasley C 1977 Nitrification in the intertidal zone: Influence of effluent type and effect of tannin on nitrifiers. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 34, 52–528.
- Bundy L G and Meisinger J J 1994 Nitrogen availability indices. *In* Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2 Microbiological and Biochemical Properties. Eds. R W Weaver, J S Angle and P S Bottomley. pp. 951–984. Soil Sci. Soc. Am., Inc. Madison, WI, USA.
- Cantliffe D J and Phatak S C 1974 Nitrate accumulation in greenhouse vegetable crops. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* 54, 783–788.
- Comly H H 1945 Cyanosis in infants caused by nitrates in well water. *J. Am. Med. Assoc.* 129, 112.
- Corre W J and Breimer T 1979 Nitrate and nitrite in vegetables. Centre for Agricultural Publishing and Documentation, Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- Correa P, Haenszel W, Cuello C, Zavala D, Fonham E, Zarama G, Tannenbaum S, Collazo T and Ruiz B 1990 Gastric precancerous process in a high risk population: cross-sectional studies. *Cancer Res.* 50, 4737–4740.
- Darusman S, Whitney D A, Janssen K A and Long J H 1991 Soil properties after twenty years of fertilization with different nitrogen sources. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 55, 1097–1100.
- Findenegg G R 1987 A comparative study of ammonium toxicity at different constant pH of the nutrient solution. *Plant Soil.* 103, 239–243.
- Frederick L R 1957 The formation of nitrate from ammonium nitrogen soil: II. Effect of population of nitrifiers. *Soil Sci.* 83, 481–485.
- Goyal S S, Lorenz O A and Huffaker R C 1982 Inhibitory effects of ammoniacal nitrogen on growth of radish plants. I. Characterization of toxic effects of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  on growth and its alleviation by  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 107, 125–129.
- Hoff J E, Wilcox G E and Jones C M 1974 The effect of nitrate and ammonium nitrogen of the free amino acid composition of tomato plants and tomato fruit. *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 99, 27–30.
- Keeney D R and Nelson D W 1982 Nitrogen-inorganic forms. *In* Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2. Eds. Page, Miller and Keeney. pp. 643–698. Am. Soc. Agron. Madison, WI, USA.
- Maynard D N and Barker AV 1969 Studies on the tolerance of plants to ammonium nutrition. *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 94, 235–239.
- McKee H S 1962 Nitrogen metabolism in plants. Calderon Press, Oxford, England.
- Ming D W 1989 Manufactured soils for plant growth at a lunar base. *In* Lunar Base Agriculture. Eds. D W Ming and D L Henninger. pp. 93–105. Soil Sci. Soc. Am., Inc. Madison, WI, USA.
- Ming D W and Mumpton F A 1989 Zeolites in soils. *In* Minerals in Soil Environment. Eds. J B Dixon and S B Weed. pp. 873–907. Soil Sci. Soc. Am., Inc. Madison, WI, USA.
- Morrill L G and Dawson J E 1967 Patterns observed for the oxidation of ammonium to nitrate by soil organisms. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. Proc.* 31, 757–902.
- Ohshima H and Bartsch H 1981 Quantitative estimation of endogenous nitrosation in humans by monitoring N-nitrosoproline excreted in the urine. *Cancer Res.* 41, 3658–3662.
- Olson R A and Kurtz L T 1982 Crop nitrogen requirements, utilization, and fertilization. *In* Nitrogen Agricultural Soils. Ed. F J Stevenson. pp. 567–604. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. Inc. Madison, WI, USA.
- Phipps R H and Cornforth I S 1970 Factors effecting the toxicity of nitrite nitrogen to tomatoes. *Plant Soil* 33, 457–466.
- Prosser J I 1989 Autotrophic nitrification in bacteria. *Adv. Microbial Physiol.* 30, 125–181.
- Rademacher J J, Young T B and Kanarek M S 1992 Gastric cancer mortality and nitrate levels in Wisconsin drinking water. *Arch. Environ. Health.* 47, 292–294.
- Sabey B R, Frederick L R and Bartholomew W V 1959 The formation of nitrate from ammonium nitrogen soils: III Influence of temperature and initial population of nitrifying organisms on the maximum rate and delay period. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. Proc.* 23, 462–465.
- Samater A H, Van Cleemput O and Ertebo T 1998 Influence of the presence of nitrite and nitrate in soil on maize biomass production, nitrogen immobilization and nitrogen recovery. *Biol. Fertil. Soils* 27, 211–218.
- Sarathachandra S U 1978 Nitrification activities of some New Zealand soils and the effect of some clay types on nitrification. *J. Agric. Res.* 21, 615–621.
- Schmidt E L 1982 Nitrification in soil. *In* Nitrogen in Agricultural Soils. Ed. F J Stevenson. pp. 253–288. Soil Sci. Soc. Am., Inc. Madison, WI, USA.
- Schmidt E L and Belser L W 1994 Autotrophic nitrifying bacteria. *In* Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2 Microbiological and Biochemical Properties. Eds. R W Weaver, J S Angle and P S Bottomley. pp. 59–79. Soil Sci. Soc. Am., Inc. Madison, WI, USA.
- Sheldrick B H 1986 Test of the Leco CHN-600 determinator for soil carbon and nitrogen analysis. *Can. J. Soil Sci.* 66, 543–545.
- Steinberg S L, Ming D W, Henderson K E, Carter C, Gruener J E, Barta D J and Henninger D L 2000 Wheat response to differences in water and nutritional status between zeoponic and hydroponic growth systems. *Agron. J.* 92, 353–360.
- Stojanovic B J and Alexander M 1958 Effect of inorganic nitrogen on nitrification. *Soil Sci.* 86, 208–215.
- Weir B L, Paulson K N and Lorenz O A 1972 The effect of ammoniacal nitrogen on lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) and radish (*Raphanus sativus*) plants. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. Proc.* 36, 462–465.

Section editor: S. Recous